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Datalog Rewritings of Regular Path Queries using Views

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ABSTRACT

We consider query answering using views on graph databases, i.e. databases structured as edge-labeled graphs. We consider views and queries specified by Regular Path Queries. These are queries selecting pairs of nodes in a graph database that are connected via a path whose sequence of edge labels belongs to some regular language.

A view \mathbf{V} determines a query Q if for all graph databases D , the view image $\mathbf{V}(D)$ always contains enough information to answer Q on D . In other words, there is a well defined function from $\mathbf{V}(D)$ to $Q(D)$.

Our main result shows that when this function is monotone, there exists a rewriting of Q as a Datalog query over the view instance $\mathbf{V}(D)$. In particular the query can be evaluated in time polynomial in the size of $\mathbf{V}(D)$.

As a side result we also prove that it is decidable whether an RPQ query can be rewritten in Datalog using RPQ views.

Categories and Subject Descriptors

H.2.4 [Database Management]: Systems—*Query processing*; H.2.3 [Database Management]: Languages—*Query languages*

General Terms

Algorithms, Security, Theory, Verification

Keywords

Regular Path Queries, Views, Rewriting, Datalog

1. INTRODUCTION

We consider the problem of answering queries using views on graph databases. Graph databases are relational databases where all relation symbols are binary. In other words a graph database can be viewed as an edge-labeled directed graph.

Graph-structured data can be found in many important scenarios. Typical examples are the semantic Web via the

format RDF and social networks. Graph-structured data differs conceptually from relational databases in that the topology of the underlying graph is as important as the data it contains. Usual queries will thus test whether two nodes are connected and *how* they are connected [4].

In many contexts it is useful to know whether a given set of queries can be used to answer another query. A typical example is the data integration setting where data sources are described by views of a virtual global database. Queries over the global database are then rewritten as queries over the views. Another example is caching: answers to some set of queries against a data source are cached, and one wishes to know if a newly arrived query can be answered using the cached information, without accessing the source. This problem also finds application in the context of security and privacy. Suppose access to some of the information in a database is provided by a set of public views, but answers to other queries are to be kept secret. This requires verifying that the disclosed views do not provide enough information to answer the secret queries.

All these problems can be phrased in terms of views and query rewriting using views, which is a typical database problem, not specific to graph databases, that has received considerable attention (see [12, 13, 3] among others). When graph databases are concerned, the difference lies only in the kind of queries under consideration [6, 8, 7, 9].

Over graph databases, typical queries have at least the expressive power of *Regular Path Queries* (RPQ), defined in [10] (see also the survey [4]). An RPQ selects pairs of nodes connected by a path whose sequence of edge labels satisfies a given regular expression. A view, denoted by \mathbf{V} , is then specified using a finite set of RPQs. When evaluated over a graph database D , the view \mathbf{V} yields a new graph database $\mathbf{V}(D)$ where each $V_i \in \mathbf{V}$ is a new edge relation symbol.

We are interested in knowing whether the view \mathbf{V} always provides enough information to answer another RPQ query Q , i.e. whether $Q(D)$ can be computed from $\mathbf{V}(D)$ for all databases D . When this is the case we say that \mathbf{V} *determines* Q and we then look for an algorithm computing $Q(D)$ from $\mathbf{V}(D)$ or, even better, we would like to exhibit a *rewriting* of Q in terms of \mathbf{V} , i.e. a new query, in some query language, over the graph database schema derived from \mathbf{V} .

These two related questions, determinacy and query rewriting, have been studied for relational databases and graph databases. Over relational databases, determinacy is undecidable already if the queries and views are defined by union of conjunctive queries, and its decidability status is

open for views and queries specified by conjunctive queries (CQ) [13]. Over graph databases and RPQ queries and views, the decidability status of determinacy is also open [7]. Determinacy has been shown to be decidable in a scenario where views and queries can only test whether there is a path of distance k between the two nodes, for some given k [3]. This scenario lies at the intersection of CQ and RPQ and contains already non trivial examples. For instance the view Path_3 and Path_4 , giving respectively the pairs of nodes connected by a path of length 3 and 4, determines the query Path_5 asking for the pairs of nodes connected by a path of length 5 [3].

Clearly when Q can be rewritten in terms of \mathbf{V} , the rewriting witnesses that \mathbf{V} determines Q . On the other hand determinacy does not say that one can find a rewriting definable in a particular language, nor with particular computational properties.

It is then natural to ask which rewriting language $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$ is sufficiently powerful so that determinacy is equivalent to the existence of a rewriting definable in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{R}}$. This clearly depends on the language used for defining the query and the view.

Consider again the case of Path_5 that is determined by Path_3 and Path_4 . A rewriting $R(x, y)$ of Path_5 in terms of Path_3 and Path_4 is defined by:

$$\exists u \text{Path}_4(x, u) \wedge \forall v (\text{Path}_3(v, u) \rightarrow \text{Path}_4(v, y))$$

and it can be shown that there is no rewriting definable in CQ, nor in RPQ. In the case of views and queries defined by CQs it is still an open problem to know whether first-order logic is a sufficiently powerful rewriting language. Even worse, it is not even known whether there always exists a rewriting that can be evaluated in time polynomial in the size of the view [13]. A similar situation arises over graph-databases and RPQ views and queries [7].

It can be checked that in the example above there exists no monotone rewriting of Path_5 (see also Example 1 in Section 2). In particular, as RPQs define only monotone queries, no rewriting is definable in RPQ. Monotone query languages such as CQ, Datalog, RPQ and their extensions are of crucial importance in many database applications. The possibility of expressing rewritings in these languages is subject to a monotonicity restriction.

This is why in this paper we are considering a stronger notion of determinacy, referred to as *monotone determinacy*, by further requiring that the mapping from view instances to query results is *monotone*.

In the case when views and queries are defined in CQ, monotone determinacy can be shown to be equivalent to the existence of a rewriting in CQ [13]. As this latter problem is decidable [12], monotone determinacy for CQs is decidable.

We consider here monotone determinacy for graph databases and views and queries defined by RPQs.

We first observe that monotone determinacy corresponds to the notion called *losslessness under the sound view assumption* in [7], where it was shown to be decidable. We then concentrate on the rewriting problem.

It is decidable whether a rewriting definable in RPQ exists [8], and we know that there exist cases of monotone rewritings that are not expressible in RPQ [7] (see also Example 2 in Section 4). We thus need a more powerful language in order to express all monotone rewritings.

It is not too hard to show that if \mathbf{V} determines Q then

there exists a rewriting with NP data complexity, as well as a rewriting with CONP data complexity. Our main result shows that if moreover \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way, there exists a rewriting definable in Datalog, which therefore can be evaluated in polynomial time.

Our proofs are constructive, hence the Datalog rewriting can be computed from \mathbf{V} and Q .

As a corollary this implies that it is decidable whether a query Q has a rewriting definable in Datalog using a view \mathbf{V} , where both \mathbf{V} and Q are defined using RPQs. This comes from the fact that our main result implies that the existence of a rewriting in Datalog is equivalent to monotone determinacy, a decidable property as mentioned above.

Related work.

The work which is most closely related to ours is that of the “Four Italians”. In particular, the notion of losslessness under the exact view assumption introduced in [7] corresponds to what we call determinacy; similarly the notion of losslessness under the sound view assumption corresponds to what we call monotone determinacy. Monotone determinacy is also mentioned in the thesis [14] under the name of “strong determinacy”. It is shown there that it corresponds to the existence of a monotone rewriting.

A lot of attention has been devoted to the problem of computing the set of certain answers to a query w.r.t a set of views, under the sound view assumption (see the precise definition of certain answers in Section 5.1). For RPQ views and queries, the problem is shown to be equivalent to testing whether the given instance homomorphically embeds into a structure $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$ computed from the view \mathbf{V} and the query Q [6]. In general this shows that the data complexity of computing the certain answers is CONP-complete. Building on results on Constraint Satisfaction Problems [11], it was also shown in [6] that for an RPQ view \mathbf{V} , an RPQ query Q and for each l, k , with $l \leq k$, there is a Datalog program $Q_{l, k}$ which is contained in the certain answers to Q given \mathbf{V} and is, in a sense, maximally contained: i.e. $Q_{l, k}$ contains all Datalog programs which are contained in the certain answers and use at most l head variables and at most k variables in each rule.

If we assume that \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way, it is easy to see that the query computing the certain answers under the sound view assumption is a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} (i.e the certain answers of a view instance $\mathbf{V}(D)$ are precisely the query result $Q(D)$). However there are possibly other rewritings (they only need to agree on instances of the form $\mathbf{V}(D)$, but may possibly differ on instances not in the image of \mathbf{V} .) While the certain answers query is CONP-hard to compute, our main result shows that there exists another rewriting which is expressible in Datalog, and has therefore polynomial time data complexity.

Nevertheless our proof makes use of the structure $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$ mentioned above, and our Datalog rewriting turns out to be the query $Q_{l, k}$ associated with Q and \mathbf{V} for some suitable values of l and k .

2. PRELIMINARIES

Graph databases and paths.

A binary schema is a finite set of relation symbols of arity 2. All the schemas used in this paper are binary. A *graph*

database D is a finite relational structure over a (binary) schema σ . We will also say a σ -structure. Alternatively D can be viewed as a directed edge-labeled graph with labels from the alphabet σ . The elements of the domain of D are referred to as *nodes*. The number of elements in D is denoted by $|D|$. If A is a set of elements of D , we denote by $D[A]$ the substructure of D induced by A .

Given a graph database D , a *path* π in D from x_0 to x_m is a finite sequence $\pi = x_0 a_0 x_1 \dots x_{m-1} a_{m-1} x_m$, where each x_i is a node of D , each a_i is in σ , and $a_i(x_i, x_{i+1})$ holds in D for each i . A *simple path* is a path such that no node occurs twice in the sequence. The *label* of π , denoted by $\lambda(\pi)$, is the word $a_0 a_1 \dots a_{m-1} \in \sigma^*$. By abuse of notation, we sometimes view a path π as a graph database, which contains only the nodes and edges that occur in the sequence.

Queries and query languages.

A (binary) *query* Q over a schema σ is a mapping associating to each graph database D over σ a finite binary relation $Q(D)$ over the domain of D . We will only consider binary queries and work with the following query languages.

A *Regular Path Query (RPQ)* Q over σ is given by a regular expression over the alphabet σ . We denote by $L(Q)$ the language corresponding to the regular expression of Q . On a graph database, such a query selects all the pairs (x, y) of nodes such that there exists a path π from x to y with $\lambda(\pi) \in L(Q)$.

For instance the query Path_3 of the introduction is an RPQ corresponding to the regular expression $\sigma\sigma\sigma$ (also denoted σ^3). The RPQ $(\sigma\sigma)^*$ would select pairs of nodes connected via a path of even length.

A *Conjunctive Regular Path Query (CRPQ)* over σ is a conjunctive query whose atoms are specified using RPQs over σ . For instance the query

$$\exists z V_1(x, z) \wedge V_2(z, y) \wedge V_3(z, y)$$

where $V_1 = a^+$, $V_2 = b$ and $V_3 = c$ selects pairs of nodes (x, y) which are connected via a path labeled a^+b and another path labeled a^+c sharing their a^+ part. This cannot be expressed by an RPQ.

A *Datalog query* over schema σ is defined by a finite set of rules of the form

$$I(\bar{x}) :- I_1(\bar{x}_1) \wedge \dots \wedge I_m(\bar{x}_m)$$

where each I_i is a relational symbol, either a symbol from σ , or an *internal symbol*. $I(\bar{x})$ is called the *head* of the rule and I must be an internal symbol. The variables \bar{x} are among $\bar{x}_1 \dots \bar{x}_m$ and the variables of \bar{x}_i not occurring in \bar{x} should be understood as existentially quantified. One of the internal symbols, referred to as the *goal*, is binary and is designated as being the output of the query. The evaluation of a Datalog query computes the internal relations incrementally starting from the empty ones by applying greedily the rules (see [2]).

It is easy to see that any RPQ, and therefore any CRPQ, can be expressed in Datalog. Hence Datalog is the most expressive of the query languages presented above. It is also well known that each Datalog query can be evaluated in polynomial time, data complexity, using the procedure briefly sketched above.

We will consider restrictions of Datalog limiting the maximal arity of the internal symbols and the number of variables in each rule. This is classical in the context of Constraint

Satisfaction Problems (CSP) [11] that we will use in Section 5. In the context of CSP, Datalog programs are boolean (i.e. the goal has arity 0) and $\text{Datalog}_{l,k}$ denotes the fragment allowing at most k variables in each rule and internal symbols of arity at most l . Here we are dealing with *binary* Datalog programs. In order to stay close to the notations and results coming from CSP, we generalize this definition and let $\text{Datalog}_{l,k}$ denote the Datalog programs having at most $k + r$ variables in each rule and internal symbols of arity at most $l + r$, where r is the arity of the goal (in our case $r = 2$).

Views.

If σ and τ are (binary) schemas, a *view* \mathbf{V} from σ to τ is a set consisting of one binary query over σ for each symbol in τ . If \mathbf{V} consists of the queries $\{V_1, \dots, V_n\}$, with a little abuse of notation, we let each V_i also denote the corresponding symbol in τ . For a graph database D over σ , we denote by $\mathbf{V}(D)$ the graph database over τ where each binary symbol V_i is instantiated as $V_i(D)$. We say that a view consisting of the queries $\{V_1, \dots, V_n\}$ is an RPQ view if each V_i is an RPQ.

In what follows whenever we refer to a view \mathbf{V} and a query Q , unless otherwise specified, we always assume that Q is over the schema σ and \mathbf{V} is a view from σ to τ .

Determinacy and rewriting.

The notion of determinacy specifies when a query can be answered completely from the available view. The following definitions are taken from [13].

DEFINITION 1 (DETERMINACY). We say that a view \mathbf{V} determines a query Q if :

$$\forall D, D', \quad \mathbf{V}(D) = \mathbf{V}(D') \Rightarrow Q(D) = Q(D')$$

In other words, $Q(D)$ only depends on the view instance $\mathbf{V}(D)$ and not on the particular database D yielding the view. Observe that determinacy says that there exists a function f defined on view images such that $Q(D) = f(\mathbf{V}(D))$ for each database D . We call f the *function induced by Q using \mathbf{V}* .

A *rewriting* of Q using \mathbf{V} is a query R over the schema τ such that $R(\mathbf{V}(D)) = Q(D)$ for all D .

EXAMPLE 1. Consider again the view \mathbf{V} defined by the two RPQs $V_1 = \sigma^3$ and $V_2 = \sigma^4$ testing for the existence of a path of length 3 and 4, respectively. Let $Q = \sigma^5$ be the query testing for the existence of a path of length 5.

It turns out that \mathbf{V} determines Q [3]. This is not immediate to see but one can verify that a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} can be expressed in first-order by the following query:

$$\exists u V_2(x, u) \wedge \forall v (V_1(v, u) \Rightarrow V_2(v, y))$$

As shown in Figure 1, the function induced by Q using \mathbf{V} is not monotone. This implies that no monotone query can be a rewriting, in particular there exists no CQ nor RPQ rewriting.

Consider now the query $Q' = \sigma^2$. One can verify that \mathbf{V} does not determine Q' . Indeed the database consisting of a single node with no edge, and the database consisting of a single path of length 2, have the same empty view but disagree on Q' .

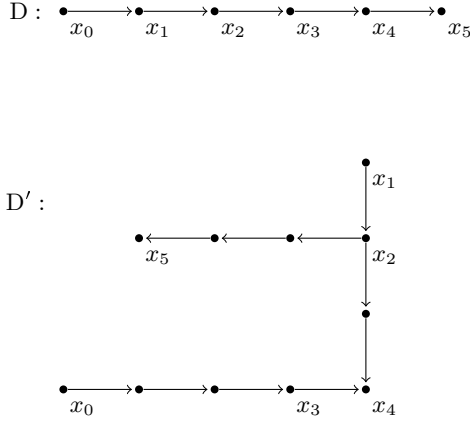


Figure 1: Illustration for Example 1: D and D' are such that $V(D) \subseteq V(D')$, but $(x_0, x_5) \in Q(D)$, whereas $(x_0, x_5) \notin Q(D')$. Hence the function induced by Q using V is not monotone.

It is important at this point to understand the difference between determinacy and rewriting. If V determines Q then there exists a rewriting of Q using V . However there are possibly many rewritings of Q using V . Each of them agrees on f , the function induced by Q using V , when restricted to view images, but can take arbitrary values on structures that are not in the image of the view.

Consider for instance the view V and the query Q of Example 1. The query:

$$\exists u, u' V_2(x, u) \wedge V_1(x, u') \wedge \forall v (V_1(v, u) \Rightarrow V_2(v, y))$$

is also a rewriting of Q using V . It is equivalent to the rewriting of Example 1 on τ -instances E such that $E = V(D)$ for some D . Indeed whenever $V_2(x, u)$ holds in $V(D)$, the database D contains a path of length four from x to u , hence if u' is the node at distance three from x in this path, $V_1(x, u')$ also holds in $V(D)$. However the two rewritings may differ on instances which are not in the view image, such as an instance consisting of a single V_2 -labelled edge.

The *determinacy problem* for a query language \mathcal{L} is the problem of deciding, given an input view V from \mathcal{L} and a query Q in \mathcal{L} , whether V determines Q .

Determinacy does not say whether there exists a rewriting definable in a particular query language, or computable with a particular data complexity. This clearly depends on the language used for specifying the views and queries. We say that a language \mathcal{L}_R is a *complete rewriting language* for the query language \mathcal{L} if it is the case that, for all views and queries in \mathcal{L} , determinacy implies the existence of a rewriting in \mathcal{L}_R .

The *rewriting problem* for a query language \mathcal{L} and a rewriting language \mathcal{L}_R is the problem of knowing whether \mathcal{L}_R is a complete rewriting language for \mathcal{L} .

These two problems have been thoroughly investigated in the case that \mathcal{L} is RPQ [7, 6, 8, 9]. However the determinacy problem for RPQ remains wide open and it is not clear what would be a good (low data complexity) complete rewriting language for RPQ. Note that a similar situation arises in the case that \mathcal{L} is CQ [13, 3].

3. BASIC RESULTS ON THE REWRITING PROBLEM

In this section we present some basic results about the data complexity of rewritings for RPQs.

Let V and Q be RPQs such that V determines Q . A possible rewriting is defined by the following naive algorithm. Given a τ -structure E , compute a σ -structure D such that $V(D) = E$ (reject if no such D exists) and return $Q(D)$. As we know that V determines Q this procedure always returns the correct answers on view images. As Q is an RPQ, computing $Q(D)$ can be done in time polynomial in $|D|$. Hence it remains to compute a D such that $V(D) = E$.

Our first result below shows that if such a D exists then there is one whose size is polynomial in $|E|$. As we will see, this implies that there exists a rewriting with NP data complexity, as well as a rewriting with CONP data complexity. It is still open whether a rewriting with polynomial time data complexity always exists.

We also show that it is NP-hard to test the existence of D such that $V(D) = E$.

We now state more formally the results mentioned above. The proofs, mostly standard, are postponed to Section 6.

A pumping argument proves the first lemma:

LEMMA 1. *Let V be an RPQ view from σ to τ . Let E be a τ -structure. If $E = V(D)$ for some D then $E = V(D')$, for some D' of size quadratic in $|E|$.*

Sketch of the proof (see Section 6 for more details). We show that if there exists D such that $E = V(D)$ then there exists a new database D' of size $O(|E|^2)$ such that $V(D') = V(D)$. D' is obtained from D in several steps. First D is “normalized”, without altering its view, so that nodes not occurring in E appear in only one path linking two nodes of E . The normalized D turns out to consist of a constant number of disjoint paths between each pair of nodes of E (where the constant only depends on the size of the view automaton). Then a Ramsey argument is used to show that these paths can be “cut” without changing the view. The resulting database D' thus consists of a constant number of paths of constant length between each pair of nodes of E . The size of D' is therefore $O(|E|^2)$. \square

In view of Lemma 1, we know that if V determines Q then there exists a rewriting R with NP data complexity. Indeed R is the query computed by the following non-deterministic polynomial time algorithm: on an input τ -structure E , guess from E a database D of polynomial size, check that $V(D) = E$ and then evaluate Q on D . There also exists a rewriting with CONP data complexity, that we exhibit by considering all databases D of polynomial size such that $V(D) = E$. Altogether we get:

COROLLARY 1. *Let V and Q be RPQs such that V determines Q . Then there exists a rewriting of Q using V with NP data complexity, and another one with CONP data complexity.*

Note that Lemma 1 provides also an NP procedure for testing, given E , the existence of D such that $V(D) = E$. Assume for a moment that this test could be done in time polynomial in $|E|$. A simple reduction shows that this test can also be done in polynomial time when one view is boolean and tests that two constants are linked via a path satisfying

a regular condition. Under this assumption, if \mathbf{V} determines Q , there exists a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} that can be evaluated in polynomial time as follows on input E : run the test for E and \mathbf{V} . If the test is positive, define \mathbf{V}' as $\mathbf{V} \cup \{Q_{a,b}\}$, where $Q_{a,b}$ tests that two constants a and b are linked by a path in $L(Q)$. For each pair (x, y) of nodes of E , let E' be E expanded with the empty relation for $Q_{a,b}$, and a and b instantiated as x and y . Run the test for \mathbf{V}' and E' . It is immediate to see that the test says yes iff $(x, y) \notin Q(D)$.

Unfortunately the following lemma shows that this test is NP-hard.

LEMMA 2. *There is an RPQ view \mathbf{V} from σ to τ such that given a τ -structure E it is NP-hard to test whether there exists a σ -structure D such that $\mathbf{V}(D) = E$.*

Sketch of the proof. We reduce 3-COLORABILITY to our problem. The proof is a simple variation of the reduction found in [5] to prove that computing certain answers under the sound view assumption is CONP-hard in data complexity. \square

It is not known whether, for RPQ views and queries, determinacy implies the existence of a rewriting with polynomial time data complexity. The complexity bounds of Corollary 1 are the current best known bounds. We will see in the next sections that if we further assume that the function induced by Q using \mathbf{V} is *monotone* then there exists a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} definable in Datalog and therefore computable in polynomial time.

4. MONOTONE DETERMINACY AND REWRITING

As Example 1 shows, there is an RPQ view \mathbf{V} and an RPQ query Q such that \mathbf{V} determines Q but the function induced by Q using \mathbf{V} is not monotone, therefore having no RPQ rewriting. It is natural to wonder whether the monotonicity of the function induced by the query is the only limit for the existence of an RPQ rewriting. Recall from the introduction that if \mathbf{V} and Q are defined using CQs and \mathbf{V} determines Q , then the function induced by Q using \mathbf{V} is monotone iff there exists a CQ rewriting. In the case of RPQ views and queries the analog does not hold. We will see that, even if we assume monotonicity, an RPQ rewriting need not exist; however in the next section we will show that a rewriting definable in Datalog always exists. We start by formalizing the notion of monotone determinacy.

DEFINITION 2 (MONOTONE DETERMINACY). *We say that a view \mathbf{V} determines a query Q in a monotone way if \mathbf{V} determines Q and the function induced by Q using \mathbf{V} is monotone.*

It is rather immediate to see that monotone determinacy is equivalent to the following property for \mathbf{V} and Q :

$$\forall D, D', \quad \mathbf{V}(D) \subseteq \mathbf{V}(D') \Rightarrow Q(D) \subseteq Q(D')$$

This turns out to coincide with the notion of *losslessness under the sound view assumption* defined in [7], that was shown to be decidable, actually EXPSpace-complete, for RPQs.

COROLLARY 2. *The monotone determinacy problem for RPQs is EXPSpace-complete.*

We now assume given an RPQ view \mathbf{V} and an RPQ query Q such that \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way. It was observed in [7] that even in this case there might be no rewriting definable in RPQ.

In fact, given \mathbf{V} and Q defined using RPQs, it is decidable whether an RPQ rewriting exists and the problem is 2EXPSpace-complete [8]. As testing monotone determinacy is EXPSpace-complete, a simple complexity argument shows that an RPQ rewriting is not guaranteed to exist under monotone determinacy.

Here is a concrete example witnessing this fact.¹

EXAMPLE 2. *Let $\sigma = \{a, b, c\}$. Let Q and \mathbf{V} be defined as follows:*

- $Q = ab^*a \mid ac^*a$
- $\mathbf{V} = \{V_1, V_2, V_3\}$ with
 - $V_1 = ab^*$
 - $V_2 = ac^*$
 - $V_3 = b^*a \mid c^*a$

One can verify that \mathbf{V} determines Q as witnessed by the following rewriting $R(x, y)$:

$$\exists z \ V_1(x, z) \wedge V_2(x, z) \wedge V_3(z, y)$$

That R is a rewriting is illustrated in Figure 2. Consider the database D of Figure 2 which is a typical database such that $(x, y) \in Q(D)$. The choice of z witnessing $(x, y) \in R(\mathbf{V}(D))$ is then immediate. Conversely, consider the database D' of Figure 2. It is a typical database such that $(x, y) \in R(\mathbf{V}(D'))$. The top path shows that $(x, y) \in Q(D)$.

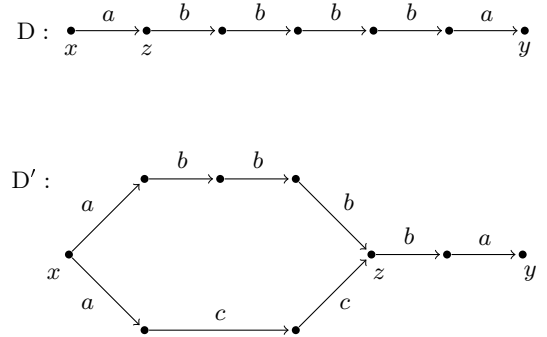


Figure 2: Databases D and D' for Example 2.

Since R is monotone, \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way. It can also be shown (for instance using the decision procedure provided in [8]) that no RPQ rewriting exists.

In the previous example we have exhibited a rewriting in CRPQ. However the following example suggests that CRPQ is not expressive enough as a rewriting language.

EXAMPLE 3. *Let $\sigma = \{a\}$. Let \mathbf{V} and Q be defined as follows:*

- $Q = a(a^6)^* \mid aa(a^6)^*$
(words of length 1 or 2 modulo 6)

¹A similar example was claimed in [7, Example 4] but it seems that in this example \mathbf{V} and Q are such that \mathbf{V} does not determine Q .

- $V = \{V_1, V_2\}$ with
 - $V_1 = a \mid aa$ (words of length 1 or 2)
 - $V_2 = aa \mid aaa$ (words of length 2 or 3)

It can be verified that V determines Q in a monotone way as witnessed by the following rewriting $R(x, y)$:

$$\exists z V_1(x, z) \wedge T^*(z, y)$$

where $T(x, y)$ is defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} \exists z_1, z_2 \quad & V_1(x, z_1) \wedge V_2(x, z_1) \wedge V_1(z_1, z_2) \wedge \\ & V_2(z_1, z_2) \wedge V_1(z_2, y) \wedge V_2(z_2, y) \end{aligned}$$

The query T is such that if $T(x, y)$ holds in $V(D)$, then in D the nodes x and y are either linked by a path of length 6 or by both a path of length 5 and a path of length 7. This fact can be checked by a simple case analysis. One such case is illustrated in Figure 3. In this case there is no path of length 6 in D , but the top path has length 5, and the path starting with the bottom segment and then the last two top segments has length 7.

From this, a simple induction shows that if $T^*(x, y)$ holds in $V(D)$, then in D the nodes x and y are either linked by a path of length 0 modulo 6, or by both a path of length 1 modulo 6 and a path of length 5 modulo 6.

Assume now that $R(x, y)$ holds in $V(D)$. Then in D there exists a z such that x is at distance 1 or 2 from z , and such that $T^*(z, y)$ holds in $V(D)$. Assume first that z and y are at distance 0 modulo 6 in D . In this case, regardless of the distance between x and z , $Q(x, y)$ holds in D . Otherwise, in D there exist both a path of length 1 modulo 6 and a path of length 5 modulo 6 from z to y . Therefore, if x and z are at distance 1, the first path from z to y yields a path of length 2 modulo 6 and, if x and z are at distance 2, the second path from z to y yields a path of length 1 modulo 6, see Figure 4.

Conversely, it is easy to check that $R(x, y)$ holds in $V(D)$ whenever $Q(x, y)$ holds in D . This follows from the fact that $T(x, y)$ holds in $V(D)$ for all x and y that are at distance 6 in D .

Notice that R is monotone. A tedious combinatorial argument can show that R cannot be expressed in CRPQ.

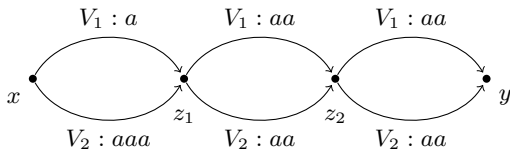


Figure 3: An arbitrary database D whose view satisfies $T(x, y)$. Each arrow of the form $V_i : w$ from a node u to a node v should be understood as a path from u to v whose label is w which witnesses $(u, v) \in V_i(D)$.

REMARK 1. The careful reader has probably noticed that in both examples above a rewriting can be expressed in MSO. As we will see later, it easily follows from the results of [6] that this is always true in general: if V and Q are defined by RPQs and V determines Q in a monotone way, then there exists a rewriting of Q using V definable in MSO (actually universal MSO).

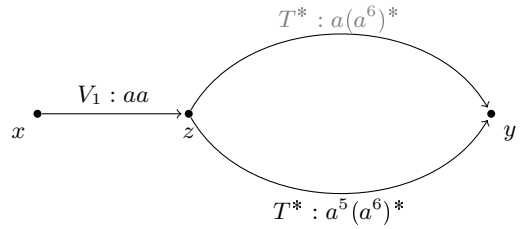
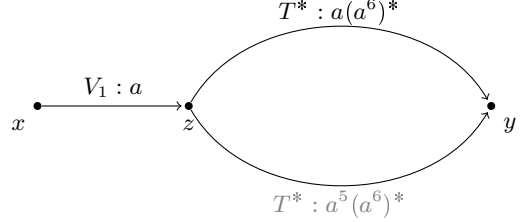
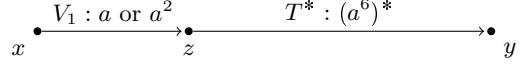


Figure 4: The three cases of Example 3. The parts that are not used for Q are shaded out.

5. DATALOG REWRITING

In this section we prove our main result, namely:

THEOREM 1. If V and Q are RPQs and V determines Q in a monotone way then there exists a Datalog rewriting of Q using V .

Theorem 1 also implies that the monotone determinacy problem for RPQs coincides with the problem of the existence of a Datalog rewriting. The latter is therefore decidable by Corollary 2:

COROLLARY 3. Let V and Q be RPQs. It is decidable, EXPSpace-complete, whether there exists a Datalog rewriting of Q using V .

Our proof being constructive, the Datalog rewriting can be computed from V and Q .

Main idea and sketch of the proof.

The starting point is the relationship between rewriting and certain answers under monotone determinacy. One can easily show that if the view determines the query in a monotone way then the certain answer query is a rewriting. However certain answers for RPQ views and queries are CONP-hard to compute [5]. Here we show that there exists another rewriting (which of course coincides with certain answers on view images) that is expressible in Datalog. This other rewriting is suggested by the relationship between certain answers and Constraint Satisfaction Problems (CSP). Following [6] we adopt here the homomorphism point of view for CSPs: Each CSP is defined by a structure, called the template, and its solutions are all the structures mapping homomorphically into the template.

Indeed [6] showed that, for RPQs \mathbf{V} and Q , certain answers can be expressed as a CSP whose template depends only on \mathbf{V} and Q . It is known from [11] that for every l and k with $l \leq k$, and every template, there exists a $\text{Datalog}_{l,k}$ query approximating the CSP defined by this template. Even if its $\text{Datalog}_{l,k}$ “approximation” does not compute precisely the CSP associated to \mathbf{V} and Q , if it is exact *on view images*, then it is a rewriting. We show that if the view determines the query in a monotone way then there is an l and a k , depending only on \mathbf{V} and Q , such that the $\text{Datalog}_{l,k}$ approximation is exact *on view images*. This proves the existence of a Datalog rewriting.

This is done in two steps. We first show that there exists a Datalog approximation which is exact on view images of simple path databases. Then we show how to lift this result on all view images. The first step is proved by a careful analysis of the properties of view images of simple path databases. The second steps exploits monotonicity.

We now provide more details.

5.1 Monotone rewritings, certain answers and CSP

Let \mathbf{V} be a view from σ to τ and Q be a query on σ -structures. The certain answers of Q on a τ -structure E w.r.t. \mathbf{V} are defined as

$$\text{cert}_{Q,\mathbf{V}}(E) = \bigcap_{D \mid E \subseteq \mathbf{V}(D)} Q(D)$$

This notion is usually referred to as certain answers under the *sound view assumption* or *open world assumption* in the literature [1, 9]. It is straightforward to check that if \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way, the query $\text{cert}_{Q,\mathbf{V}}$ is a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} , i.e. $\text{cert}_{Q,\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{V}(D)) = Q(D)$ for each σ -structure D .

Therefore any language known to express certain answers is a suitable rewriting language under monotone determinacy.

The following proposition, proved in [6], shows that, for RPQ views and queries, certain answers (and therefore rewritings) can be expressed as (the negation of) a CSP.

PROPOSITION 1 ([6]). *Let \mathbf{V} be an RPQ view from σ to τ and Q be an RPQ query over σ . There exists a τ -structure $T_{Q,\mathbf{V}}$ having a set of distinguished source nodes and a set of distinguished target nodes such that, if \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way, the following are equivalent, for each σ -structure D and each pair of nodes u, v of D :*

1. $(u, v) \in Q(D)$
2. $(u, v) \in \text{cert}_{Q,\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{V}(D))$
3. $\mathbf{V}(D)$ has no homomorphism to $T_{Q,\mathbf{V}}$ sending u to a source node and v to a target node.²

In the sequel, by $\neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q,\mathbf{V}})$ (resp. $\text{CSP}(T_{Q,\mathbf{V}})$) we refer to the set of all triplets (E, u, v) such that E is a τ -structure, u, v are nodes of E and, there is no homomorphism (resp. there is a homomorphism) from E to $T_{Q,\mathbf{V}}$.

²More precisely [6] further proved that 2. and 3. are equivalent not only for $\mathbf{V}(D)$ but for all τ -structures, and even without the assumption that \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way.

sending u to a source node and v to a target node³. In view of Proposition 1, if \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way, $(\mathbf{V}(D), u, v) \in \neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q,\mathbf{V}})$ iff $(u, v) \in Q(D)$.

Observe that $\neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q,\mathbf{V}})$ naturally defines a binary query associating with each τ -structure E the set of all pairs (u, v) of nodes of E such that $(E, u, v) \in \neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q,\mathbf{V}})$. By abuse of notation, when clear from the context, we will let $\neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q,\mathbf{V}})$ also denote this binary query.

REMARK 2. *The structure $T_{Q,\mathbf{V}}$ of Proposition 1 can be effectively computed from Q and \mathbf{V} . Moreover observe that $\text{CSP}(T_{Q,\mathbf{V}})$ can be expressed in existential MSO. This shows, as mentioned in Remark 1, that if \mathbf{V} and Q are RPQs and \mathbf{V} determines Q in monotone way, then there always exists a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} definable in (universal) MSO; moreover this rewriting can be effectively computed from Q and \mathbf{V} .*

Although under monotone determinacy the certain answer query is a rewriting, as we will see shortly, under standard complexity assumptions, no polynomial time language can express $\text{cert}_{Q,\mathbf{V}}$ for all RPQs Q and \mathbf{V} , not even under the assumption that \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way. Indeed it has been shown [5] that there exists Q and \mathbf{V} defined by RPQs such that $\text{cert}_{Q,\mathbf{V}}$ has coNP-hard data complexity. An easy reduction from this problem shows that the lower bound remains valid if we further assume that \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way:

PROPOSITION 2. *There exist an RPQ view \mathbf{V} and an RPQ query Q such that \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way and it is coNP-hard to decide – given a τ -structure E and nodes (u, v) of E – whether $(u, v) \in \text{cert}_{Q,\mathbf{V}}(E)$.*

We show next that when \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way there is another rewriting expressible in Datalog, hence computable in polynomial time.

5.2 Datalog rewritings

We now show that for each RPQ query Q and each RPQ view \mathbf{V} such that \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way, there exists a Datalog rewriting.

The existence of such a rewriting stems from links between CSPs and Datalog. Recall from Proposition 1 that if \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way, $\neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q,\mathbf{V}})$, viewed as a binary query, is a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} . It is known that to each CSP problem (i.e. arbitrary template), one can associate a canonical $\text{Datalog}_{l,k}$ program, for each l, k , with $l \leq k$. This program can equivalently be described in terms of a two-player game, and can be thought of as a maximal “approximation” of the complement of a CSP problem, in a precise sense (the interested reader is referred to [11] for more details). Our main contribution consists in proving that, for some explicit values of l and k (depending on Q and \mathbf{V}), this $\text{Datalog}_{l,k}$ approximation is “exact” when restricted to view images (i.e. computes precisely $\neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q,\mathbf{V}})$), and is therefore a rewriting over such instances.

We now present the (l, k) -two-player game of [11], and its correspondence with Datalog.

³CSP are usually defined as boolean problems, i.e. without the nodes u, v . As RPQ queries are binary, these parameters are necessary for our presentation. The problem $\text{CSP}(T_{Q,\mathbf{V}})$, as defined here, can be viewed as a classical CSP problem by extending the signature with two unary predicates, interpreted as the source and the target nodes, as done in [6].

DEFINITION 3 ((l, k)-TWO-PLAYER GAME). Let l, k be two integers, with $l \leq k$, let E be a τ -structure and u, v be two nodes of E . The (l, k) -game on $(E, T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}, u, v)$ is played by two players as follows:

- The game begins with $A_0 = \emptyset$ and h_0 being the empty function over A_0 .

For $i \geq 0$, round $i + 1$ is defined as follows:

- Player 1 selects a set A_{i+1} of nodes of E , with $|A_{i+1}| \leq k$ and $|A_i \cap A_{i+1}| \leq l$.
- Player 2 responds by giving a homomorphism $h_{i+1} : E[A_{i+1}] \rightarrow T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$ that coincides with h_i on $A_i \cap A_{i+1}$ and such that $h_{i+1}(u)$ is a source node and $h_{i+1}(v)$ is a target node whenever u or v are in A_{i+1} .

Player 1 wins if at any point Player 2 has no possible move. Player 2 wins if she can play forever.

The existence of a winning strategy for Player 1 is expressible in Datalog:

LEMMA 3 ([11, 6]). Let l, k be two integers, with $l \leq k$, and Q and \mathbf{V} be an RPQ query and an RPQ view. Then there exists a program $Q_{l,k}(x, y)$ in $\text{Datalog}_{l,k}$ such that for every graph database E , $Q_{l,k}(E)$ is the set of pairs (u, v) such that Player 1 has a winning strategy for the (l, k) -two-player game on $(E, T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}, u, v)$.

Moreover the program in the above lemma can be effectively constructed from $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$, and therefore from Q and \mathbf{V} . It will be simply denoted by $Q_{l,k}$ when Q and \mathbf{V} are clear from the context.

We are now ready to state the main technical result of our paper.

PROPOSITION 3. Let \mathbf{V} and Q be an RPQ view and an RPQ query such that \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way. There exists l such that $Q_{l,l+1}$ is a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} .

Theorem 1 is an immediate consequence of this proposition. The rest of this section is devoted to proving Proposition 3. This is done in two steps. We first prove that there exists l such that $Q_{l,l+1}$ is a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} , when restricted to view images of simple path graph databases. We then show that this suffices for $Q_{l,l+1}$ to be a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} .

Observe that if there is a homomorphism from a τ -structure E to $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$ sending u to a source node and v to a target node, then Player 2 has a winning strategy for the (l, k) -two-player game on $(E, T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}, u, v)$. This strategy consists in always playing the restriction of the homomorphism on the set selected by Player 1. In this sense the program $Q_{l,k}$ is a $\text{Datalog}_{l,k}$ under-approximation of the $\neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q, \mathbf{V}})$ problem: if $(u, v) \in Q_{l,k}(E)$ then $(E, u, v) \in \neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q, \mathbf{V}})$. If moreover $E = \mathbf{V}(D)$ for some σ -structure D then, by Proposition 1, $(u, v) \in Q_{l,k}(\mathbf{V}(D))$ implies $(u, v) \in Q(D)$. We will refer to this property by saying that $Q_{l,k}$ is always *sound*.

The converse inclusion does not necessarily hold. If $(u, v) \notin Q_{l,k}(E)$ then Player 2 has a winning strategy, but this only means that she can always exhibit partial homomorphisms from E to $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$ (sometimes called *local consistency checking*); this is in general not sufficient to guarantee the existence of a suitable global homomorphism.

However here we are not interested in arbitrary τ -structures, but only structures of the form $\mathbf{V}(D)$ for some simple path graph database D . We now show that, thanks to the particular properties of these structures, local consistency checking is sufficient to obtain a global homomorphism, for some suitable l and $k = l + 1$. In other words, the program $Q_{l,l+1}$ computes precisely $\neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q, \mathbf{V}})$ on views of simple path graph databases.

The case of simple path graph databases.

PROPOSITION 4. Let \mathbf{V} and Q be an RPQ view and an RPQ query. There exists l such that for every simple path database D from u to v ,

$$(u, v) \in Q_{l,l+1}(\mathbf{V}(D)) \text{ iff } (\mathbf{V}(D), u, v) \in \neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}).$$

In particular if \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way,

$$(u, v) \in Q_{l,l+1}(\mathbf{V}(D)) \text{ iff } (u, v) \in Q(D).$$

PROOF. Let \mathbf{V} and Q be an RPQ view and an RPQ query, and let D be a graph database consisting of a simple path from node u to node v . Assume $u, v \in \mathbf{V}(D)$.

We will show, in Lemma 4 below, that for large enough l , if Player 2 has a winning strategy on the game on $(\mathbf{V}(D), T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}, u, v)$ then we can exhibit a homomorphism witnessing the fact that $(\mathbf{V}(D), u, v) \in \text{CSP}(T_{Q, \mathbf{V}})$. Before that we prove crucial properties of $\mathbf{V}(D)$ which will be exploited in the sequel. For that we need the following simple definitions and claims.

Let D consist of the simple path $\pi = x_0 a_1 x_1 \dots x_m a_m x_{m+1}$, with $x_0 = u$ and $x_{m+1} = v$. Moreover let $E = \mathbf{V}(D)$ and let $A = \langle S_{\mathbf{V}}, \delta_{\mathbf{V}}, q_{\mathbf{V}}^0, F_{\mathbf{V}} \rangle$ be the product automaton of all the deterministic minimal automata of all the regular expressions of the RPQs in \mathbf{V} . Let $N(\mathbf{V})$ be the number of states of A , i.e. $|S_{\mathbf{V}}|$.

In what follows, for $q \in S_{\mathbf{V}}$ and $w \in \sigma^*$, $\delta_{\mathbf{V}}(q, w)$ denotes the set of states $p \in S_{\mathbf{V}}$ such that there is a run of A on w starting in state q and arriving in state p .

For every $k \leq m + 1$, and every $i, j \leq k$, we say that $x_i \sim_k x_j$ in $\mathbf{V}(D)$ if, for all $V \in \mathbf{V}$, for all $r \geq k$,

$$(x_i, x_r) \in V(D) \iff (x_j, x_r) \in V(D)$$

For all k , the relation \sim_k is an equivalence relation over $\{x_i \mid i \leq k\}$. We now prove the main property of $\mathbf{V}(D)$, namely that the index of all \sim_k is bounded by the size of \mathbf{V} .

CLAIM 1. For all $k \leq m + 1$:

$$\left| \{x_i \mid i \leq k\} / \sim_k \right| \leq N(\mathbf{V})$$

PROOF. To each node x_i in π with $i \leq k$, we associate a state $\varphi(x_i) \in S_{\mathbf{V}}$ defined as :

$$\varphi(x_i) = \delta_{\mathbf{V}}(q_{\mathbf{V}}^0, \lambda(\pi_{i \rightarrow k}))$$

where $\pi_{s \rightarrow t}$ is defined as the subpath of π that starts at position s and ends at position t , that is $\pi_{s \rightarrow t} = x_s a_s x_{s+1} a_{s+1} \dots a_{t-1} x_t$.

Assume that there exists two nodes x_i and x_j , with $i, j \leq k$, that have the same image in φ . It follows that:

$$\delta_{\mathbf{V}}(q_{\mathbf{V}}^0, \lambda(\pi_{i \rightarrow k})) = \delta_{\mathbf{V}}(q_{\mathbf{V}}^0, \lambda(\pi_{j \rightarrow k}))$$

Let us prove that $x_i \sim_k x_j$. Assume that there exists $r \geq k$ and $V \in \mathbf{V}$ such that $(x_i, x_r) \in V(D)$. Then $\delta_{\mathbf{V}}(q_{\mathbf{V}}^0, \lambda(\pi_{i \rightarrow r}))$

is final for V . Remark that $\lambda(\pi_{i \rightarrow r}) = \lambda(\pi_{i \rightarrow k})\lambda(\pi_{k \rightarrow r})$, from which we can deduce that :

$$\delta_{\mathbf{V}}(q_{\mathbf{V}}^0, \lambda(\pi_{i \rightarrow r})) = \delta_{\mathbf{V}}(\varphi(x_i), \lambda(\pi_{k \rightarrow r}))$$

Hence,

$$\delta_{\mathbf{V}}(q_{\mathbf{V}}^0, \lambda(\pi_{i \rightarrow r})) = \delta_{\mathbf{V}}(\varphi(x_j), \lambda(\pi_{k \rightarrow r}))$$

We can now conclude that $\delta_{\mathbf{V}}(q_{\mathbf{V}}^0, \lambda(\pi_{j \rightarrow r}))$ is final for V , which means that $(x_j, x_r) \in V(D)$. A symmetric argument easily proves the other direction of the equivalence. Hence, $x_i \sim_k x_j$, and we can finally conclude that there cannot be more than $N(\mathbf{V})$ distinct equivalence classes of \sim_k over the nodes $\{x_i \mid i \leq k\}$ of π . \square

The following easily verified property of the equivalence relations \sim_k will also be useful:

CLAIM 2. *Let $k_1, k_2 \leq m + 1$, with $k_1 \leq k_2$. Let x and y be elements of π that occur before x_{k_1} . Then $x \sim_{k_1} y$ implies $x \sim_{k_2} y$.*

We are now ready to prove the statement of the Proposition.

Let $l = |T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}| \cdot N(\mathbf{V})$. We prove that $(u, v) \in Q_{l, l+1}(E)$ iff $(E, u, v) \in \neg\text{CSP}(T_{Q, \mathbf{V}})$. In view of the fact that $Q_{l, l+1}$ encodes the $(l, l+1)$ -two-player game in the sense of Lemma 3, it is enough to prove the following:

LEMMA 4. *Player 2 has a winning strategy for the $(l, l+1)$ -two-player game on $(E, T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}, u, v)$ iff there is an homomorphism from E to $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$ sending u to a source node and v to a target node.*

PROOF. The right-left direction is obvious. If there is a suitable homomorphism $h : E \rightarrow T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$, then Player 2 has a winning strategy which consists in playing according to h .

Conversely, assume that Player 2 has a winning strategy for the $(l, l+1)$ -two-player game on $(E, T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}, u, v)$. Let $\{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_r\}$ be an ordering of the elements of E , according to the order on π , that is, in such a way that $\forall j \leq k, s_j$ occurs before s_k in π . Clearly $s_1 = u$ and $s_r = v$. If $r \leq l+1$, Player 1 can select all elements of E in a single round, and then Player 2 has to provide a full homomorphism from E to $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$, which concludes the proof.

Assume $r > l+1$. For ease of notations, we will number rounds starting from $l+1$. This can be seen just as a technicality, or equivalently as Player 1 selecting the empty set for the first l rounds. Since Player 2 has a winning strategy, she has, in particular, a winning response against the following play of Player 1 :

- On round $l+1$, Player 1 plays $A_{l+1} = \{s_1, \dots, s_{l+1}\}$. Player 2 has to respond with a partial homomorphism h_{l+1} , which she can do, since she has a winning strategy.
- Assume that, on round i , A_i is of size $l+1$ and its element of biggest index is s_i (as it is the case on round $l+1$). Given the choice of l , the set A_i is sufficiently "big", that is by Claim 1, there exist two elements $s_j, s_k \in A_i$ such that $s_j \sim_i s_k$, and $h_i(s_j) = h_i(s_k)$. On round $i+1$, Player 1 picks $A_{i+1} = (A_i - \{s_j\}) \cup \{s_{i+1}\}$. This choice maintains that A_{i+1} is of size $l+1$ and that its element of biggest index is s_{i+1} . Once again, Player 2 has to respond with a partial homomorphism h_{i+1} , which she can do.

- Following this play, on round r , A_r contains s_r , the element of biggest index in E . From now on, we no longer care about Player 1's move, that is, we arbitrarily set $A_i = \emptyset$ for all $i > r$.

We can now define h as follows :

$$h(s_i) = \begin{cases} h_{l+1}(s_i) & \text{if } i \leq l+1 \\ h_i(s_i) & \text{if } l+1 < i \leq r \end{cases}$$

Observe that, by definition, the mapping h sends u to a source node and v to a target node (since so do all the h_i 's used in the game). It remains to prove that h is an homomorphism from E to $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$. We prove by induction on $i \geq l+1$ that :

- (H₁) h is a homomorphism from $E[\{s_1, \dots, s_i\}]$ to $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$.
- (H₂) h coincides with h_i on A_i .
- (H₃) for all $j \leq i$, there exists $s \in A_i$ such that $s_j \sim_i s$ and $h(s_j) = h(s)$.

Base case : For $i = l+1$, the mapping h coincides by definition with h_{l+1} on $\{s_1, \dots, s_{l+1}\}$. Hence, (H₁) and (H₃) follow easily.

Inductive case : Assume that there exists i with $l+1 \leq i < r$ such that (H₁), (H₂) and (H₃) holds for i ; we prove them for $i+1$.

- (H₂) Let $s \in A_{i+1}$. If $s = s_{i+1}$, then, by definition, $h(s_{i+1}) = h_{i+1}(s_{i+1})$. Otherwise, $s \in A_i \cap A_{i+1}$. (H₂) for i implies that $h(s) = h_i(s)$, and the definition of h_{i+1} thus yields $h_{i+1}(s) = h_i(s) = h(s)$. Hence, (H₂) holds for $i+1$.
- (H₃) Let $j \leq i+1$. If $j = i+1$, then $s_j \in A_{i+1}$, and the result is obvious. Otherwise, (H₃) for i implies that there exists $s \in A_i$ such that $s_j \sim_i s$ and $h(s_j) = h(s)$. From Claim 2, we deduce that $s_j \sim_{i+1} s$. If $s \in A_{i+1}$, there is nothing more to prove. Otherwise, it means that s is exactly the element that was removed from A_i on round $i+1$, which means that there exists another element $s' \in A_i \cap A_{i+1}$ such that $s \sim_i s'$ and $h_i(s) = h_i(s')$. Then Claim 2 and (H₂) imply that $s_j \sim_{i+1} s'$ and $h(s_j) = h(s')$. Hence (H₃) holds for $i+1$.
- (H₁) By definition, h already preserves any self-loop. Moreover, (H₁) for i implies that h is a homomorphism from $E[\{s_1, \dots, s_i\}]$ to $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$. Hence, any edge between two elements of $\{s_1, \dots, s_i\}$ in E is already preserved by h . Let $s_j \in \{s_1, \dots, s_i\}$. Remark that, since π is a simple path, there are no edges from s_{i+1} to s_j in E . Thus, we just have to prove that all edges from s_j to s_{i+1} are preserved by h .
(H₃) for $i+1$ implies that there exists an element $s \in A_{i+1}$ such that $s_j \sim_{i+1} s$ and $h(s_j) = h(s)$. Since h_{i+1} is a homomorphism on $E[A_{i+1}]$, it preserves all edges from s to s_{i+1} . Moreover, (H₂) for $i+1$ implies that h and h_{i+1} coincide on A_{i+1} , which means that h preserves all edges from s to s_{i+1} . Finally, the definition of \sim_{i+1} implies that s_j and s have the same edges to s_{i+1} . Hence, h preserves all edges from s_j to s_{i+1} .

Finally, (H₁) applied for r proves that h is indeed a homomorphism from E to $T_{Q, \mathbf{V}}$.

This completes the proof of Lemma 4. \square

Now assume \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way, then from Proposition 1 it immediately follows that $(u, v) \in Q_{l,l+1}(\mathbf{V}(D))$ iff $(u, v) \in Q(D)$. This completes the proof of Proposition 4. \square

From simple paths to arbitrary graph databases.

Proposition 4 shows that if Q determines \mathbf{V} in a monotone way then $Q_{l,l+1}$ is a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} , when restricted to simple path databases. It remains to lift this result to arbitrary graph databases. In a sense, the following result shows that the general case can always be reduced to the simple path case.

PROPOSITION 5. *Let \mathbf{V} and Q be an RPQ view and an RPQ query such that \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way. Assume \mathcal{P} is a query of schema τ such that:*

1. \mathcal{P} is closed under homomorphisms: for all databases E, E' , and all pair of elements (u, v) of E , if $(u, v) \in \mathcal{P}(E)$ and there exists a homomorphism $h : E \rightarrow E'$ then $(h(u), h(v)) \in \mathcal{P}(E')$.
2. \mathcal{P} is sound and complete for all simple path databases: for all simple path databases D from u to v such that u and v are in the domain of $\mathbf{V}(D)$, we have $(u, v) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V}(D))$ iff $(u, v) \in Q(D)$.
3. \mathcal{P} is always sound: for all graph databases D and elements u and v of $\mathbf{V}(D)$, if $(u, v) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V}(D))$ then $(u, v) \in Q(D)$.

Then \mathcal{P} is a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} .

PROOF. Let D be a database, and (u, v) be a pair of elements of $\mathbf{V}(D)$, such that $(u, v) \in Q(D)$. Then there exists in D a path π_0 from u to v , such that $\lambda(\pi_0) \in L(Q)$.

Consider the simple path $\pi = x_0 a_0 x_1 \dots x_m a_m x_{m+1}$ defined such that $\lambda(\pi) = \lambda(\pi_0)$. Since \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way and $\lambda(\pi) \in L(Q)$, then x_0 and x_{m+1} are in the domain of $\mathbf{V}(\pi)$, and $(x_0, x_{m+1}) \in Q(\pi)$. Hence, (2) implies that $(x_0, x_{m+1}) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V}(\pi))$.

Additionally, it is clear that there exists a homomorphism h from π to D with $h(x_0) = u$ and $h(x_{m+1}) = v$. Observe that h extends to the views of π and D , that is h is an homomorphism from $\mathbf{V}(\pi)$ to $\mathbf{V}(D)$, and (1) thus implies that $(u, v) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{V}(D))$.

The other direction is immediately given by (3). \square

We now have all the elements to prove Proposition 3. Let \mathbf{V} and Q be an RPQ view and an RPQ query such that \mathbf{V} determines Q in a monotone way. By Proposition 4 there exists l such that $Q_{l,l+1}$ is sound and complete over simple path databases. Moreover each Datalog query is preserved under homomorphisms, and we have already observed that all $Q_{l,k}$ are always sound. It then follows from Proposition 5 that there exists l such that $Q_{l,l+1}$ is a rewriting of Q using \mathbf{V} . This proves Proposition 3 and therefore Theorem 1.

6. MISSING PROOFS FROM SECTION 3

In this section, we provide the missing proofs of Section 3.

LEMMA 1. *Let \mathbf{V} be an RPQ view from σ to τ . Let E be a τ -structure. If $E = \mathbf{V}(D)$ for some D then $E = \mathbf{V}(D')$, for some D' of size quadratic in $|E|$.*

PROOF. Let \mathbf{V} and E be as in the statement of the lemma. Assume that there exists a database D such that $E = \mathbf{V}(D)$. We prove the lemma by constructing a new database D' such that $\mathbf{V}(D') = \mathbf{V}(D)$, with $|D'| = O(|E|^2)$.

Let $A = \langle S_{\mathbf{V}}, \delta_{\mathbf{V}}, q_{\mathbf{V}}^0, F_{\mathbf{V}} \rangle$ be the product automaton of all the deterministic minimal automata of all the regular expressions of the RPQs in \mathbf{V} . Let $N(\mathbf{V})$ be the number of states of A , i.e $|S_{\mathbf{V}}|$.

In what follows, for $w \in \sigma^*$, $\delta_{\mathbf{V}}(\cdot, w)$ denotes the function from $S_{\mathbf{V}}$ to $S_{\mathbf{V}}$ sending q to p such that there is a run of A on w starting in state q and arriving in state p .

We say that a path π from u to v in a database D' is \mathbf{V} -minimal if $u, v \in \mathbf{V}(D')$ and no other nodes of π are in $\mathbf{V}(D')$.

We first build a database D_1 such that :

- $\mathbf{V}(D_1) = \mathbf{V}(D)$;
- each node of D_1 is in a \mathbf{V} -minimal path and no two \mathbf{V} -minimal paths in D_1 intersect;
- the number of \mathbf{V} -minimal paths in D_1 is bounded by $|\mathbf{V}(D)|^2 \cdot N(\mathbf{V})^{N(\mathbf{V})}$.

D_1 is constructed as follows: All elements of $\mathbf{V}(D)$ are elements of D_1 . Moreover, for each function $f : S_{\mathbf{V}} \rightarrow S_{\mathbf{V}}$ and each pair (x, y) of elements of $\mathbf{V}(D)$, if there exists a \mathbf{V} -minimal path π from x to y in D and such that $f = \delta_{\mathbf{V}}(\cdot, \lambda(\pi))$, then we add to D_1 a copy of π that uses only fresh, non-repeating nodes, except for x and y . Figure 5 illustrates the main idea of this construction.

It is now easy to check that D_1 has the desired properties. The second bullet holds by construction. Clearly the number of $f : S_{\mathbf{V}} \rightarrow S_{\mathbf{V}}$ is bounded by $N(\mathbf{V})^{N(\mathbf{V})}$ hence the third bullet holds. It remains to check that $\mathbf{V}(D_1) = \mathbf{V}(D)$. There is an obvious canonical homomorphism sending D_1 to D . Hence $\mathbf{V}(D_1) \subseteq \mathbf{V}(D)$. For the converse direction, consider a path π witnessing the fact that $(u, v) \in \mathbf{V}(D)$. Decompose π into \mathbf{V} -minimal paths. By construction, each of these \mathbf{V} -minimal paths can be simulated in D_1 . Hence $(u, v) \in \mathbf{V}(D_1)$.

From D_1 we construct the desired D' by replacing each \mathbf{V} -minimal path of D_1 by another one whose length is bounded by a constant r and without affecting the view image. Altogether D' will have a size bounded by $r \cdot |\mathbf{V}(D)|^2 \cdot N(\mathbf{V})^{N(\mathbf{V})}$, hence polynomial in $|\mathbf{V}(D)|$ as desired.

Let r be the Ramsey's number that guarantees the existence of a monochromatic 3-clique in an r -clique using $N(\mathbf{V})^{N(\mathbf{V})} \cdot 2^{N(\mathbf{V})^{N(\mathbf{V})}}$ colors.

Consider a \mathbf{V} -minimal path $\pi = x a_0 x_1 a_1 \dots x_m a_m y$ in D_1 such that $m > r$. For $1 \leq s < t \leq m$ we denote by $\pi_{s \rightarrow t}$ the subpath of π that starts at position s and ends at position t , that is $\pi_{s \rightarrow t} = x_s a_s x_{s+1} a_{s+1} \dots a_{t-1} x_t$.

To each pair of nodes (x_i, x_j) in π with $i < j$, we attribute the color (f_{ij}, Δ_{ij}) where:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{ij} &= \delta_{\mathbf{V}}(\cdot, \lambda(\pi_{i \rightarrow j})) \\ \Delta_{ij} &= \{f : S_{\mathbf{V}} \rightarrow S_{\mathbf{V}} \mid \exists \alpha, \quad i < \alpha < j \text{ and} \\ &\quad f = \delta_{\mathbf{V}}(\cdot, \lambda(\pi_{i \rightarrow \alpha}))\}. \end{aligned}$$

Then, by our choice of r , we know that there exist $i < j < k$ such that $f_{ij} = f_{jk} = f_{ik}$ and $\Delta_{ij} = \Delta_{jk} = \Delta_{ik}$. Let π' be the path constructed from π by replacing the subpath $\pi_{i \rightarrow k}$ by $\pi_{i \rightarrow j \rightarrow k}$.

Let D_2 be the database constructed from D_1 by replacing π by π' . We now prove that $\mathbf{V}(D_2) = \mathbf{V}(D_1)$. As D_2 still has all the properties of D_1 listed above, by repeating this operation until all \mathbf{V} -minimal paths have length less than r we eventually get the desired database D' .

Let $(u, v) \in \mathbf{V}(D_1)$ as witnessed by a path μ in D_1 . Then μ neither starts nor ends in an internal node of π as internal nodes do not appear in $\mathbf{V}(D_1)$. Hence either μ does not use π or it uses all of it. In the former case, μ witnesses the fact that $(u, v) \in \mathbf{V}(D_2)$. In the latter, notice that $f_{ik} = f_{jk}$ implies that $\lambda_{\mathbf{V}}(\cdot, \lambda(\pi)) = \lambda_{\mathbf{V}}(\cdot, \lambda(\pi'))$, hence replacing π by π' in μ witnesses the fact that $(u, v) \in \mathbf{V}(D_2)$. Altogether we have shown that $\mathbf{V}(D_1) \subseteq \mathbf{V}(D_2)$.

Suppose now that $(u, v) \in \mathbf{V}(D_2)$ as witnessed by a path μ in D_2 . If μ does not go through x_j (i.e. x_j is not an internal node of μ), it is also a path in D_1 and $(u, v) \in \mathbf{V}(D_1)$. If μ goes through x_j but does not end between x_j and x_k we can also conclude that $(u, v) \in \mathbf{V}(D_1)$ using the fact that $f_{ik} = f_{jk}$. It remains to consider the case when μ ends with $x_j a_j \dots a_{\beta-1} x_\beta$ for some β with $j < \beta < k$ (in particular $v = x_\beta$). As $\Delta_{ij} = \Delta_{jk}$ there exists α with $i < \alpha < j$ such that $\delta_{\mathbf{V}}(\cdot, \lambda(\pi_{i \rightarrow \alpha})) = \delta_{\mathbf{V}}(\cdot, \lambda(\pi_{j \rightarrow \beta}))$. From this we can construct a path μ' in D_1 replacing in μ the segment $x_j a_j \dots a_{\beta-1} x_\beta$ by $x_i a_i \dots a_{\alpha-1} x_\alpha$, witnessing the fact that $(u, x_\alpha) \in \mathbf{V}(D_1)$, a contradiction as x_α is not an element of $\mathbf{V}(D_1)$. Altogether we have proved that $\mathbf{V}(D_2) \subseteq \mathbf{V}(D_1)$. Hence, $\mathbf{V}(D_2) = \mathbf{V}(D_1) = \mathbf{V}(D)$. \square

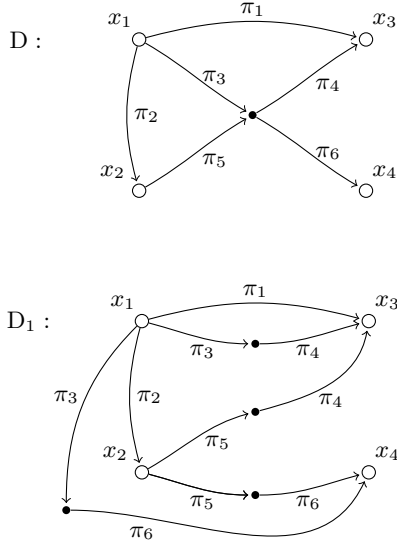


Figure 5: Illustration of the transformation from D to D_1 in Lemma 1. Nodes are colored white or black depending on whether they appear in $\mathbf{V}(D)$ or not.

LEMMA 2. *There is an RPQ view \mathbf{V} from σ to τ such that given a τ -structure E it is NP-hard to test whether there exists a σ -structure D such that $\mathbf{V}(D) = E$.*

PROOF. We prove this by reducing 3-COLORABILITY to our problem.

Let $\sigma = \{rg, gr, bg, gb, rb, br\}$ and $\tau = \{V_1, V_2\}$. By abuse of notation, we will refer to an element of σ as $\alpha\beta$, with α

and β two symbols in $\{r, g, b\}$, and $\alpha \neq \beta$. Let \mathbf{V} be the following view from σ to τ :

- $\mathbf{V} = \{V_1, V_2\}$
- $L(V_1) = \{rg, gr, bg, gb, rb, br\}$
- $L(V_2) = \{\alpha_1\beta_1 \cdot \alpha_2\beta_2 \mid \beta_1 \neq \alpha_2\}$.

Let $G = (U, W)$ be a connected graph. From G we define a τ -structure E_G , in which the interpretation of V_1 is:

$$\{(x, y) \mid (x, y) \in W \text{ or } (y, x) \in W\}$$

and the interpretation of V_2 is the empty relation.

We show that G is 3-colorable iff there exists D such that $\mathbf{V}(D) = E_G$.

Intuitively, the idea is that σ describes the colors of the edges of G , that is the color of the two end points of each edge. For instance, if x and y are linked by rg , then it should be understood that x is red and y is green. V_1 checks that each pair of nodes that are connected in G are colored with (at least) two different colors, and V_2 checks if there is any error, that is, if a node is required to have more than one color. Since V_2 is empty, any graph database D such that $\mathbf{V}(D) = E$ cannot have any such error, and would thus be 3-colorable.

More precisely, assume that G is 3-colorable. Then there exists a coloring function $c : U \rightarrow \{r, g, b\}$ such that $c(x) \neq c(y)$ for all $(x, y) \in W$. We define D as the σ -structure such that, for each $\alpha\beta \in \sigma$, the interpretation of $\alpha\beta$ in D is:

$$\{(x, y) \mid (x, y) \in W \text{ or } (y, x) \in W, \text{ and } c(x) = \alpha, c(y) = \beta\}.$$

It is then easy to check that $\mathbf{V}(D) = E_G$. Indeed, for all $x, y, z \in D$, if $\alpha_1\beta_1(x, y)$ and $\alpha_2\beta_2(y, z)$ hold in D , then $\beta_1 = c(y) = \alpha_2$, hence $(x, z) \notin V_2(D)$, so $V_2(D)$ is empty.

Conversely, assume that there exists a graph database D such that $\mathbf{V}(D) = E_G$. Consider the coloring function $c : U \rightarrow \{r, g, b\}$ defined as: $c(x) = \alpha$ if there exists y such that $\alpha\beta(x, y)$ holds in D . Since $V_2(D)$ is empty, it is immediate to check that $c(x)$ is uniquely defined and that c is a proper 3-coloring of G . \square

7. CONCLUSIONS

We have seen that if an RPQ view \mathbf{V} determines an RPQ query Q in a monotone way then a Datalog rewriting can be computed from \mathbf{V} and Q .

As a corollary it is decidable whether there exists a Datalog rewriting to an RPQ query using RPQ views.

We may wonder whether a simpler query language than Datalog could do the job. For instance all examples we are aware of use only the transitive closure of binary CRPQs. It is then natural to ask whether linear Datalog (at most one internal predicate may occur in the body of each rule) using internal predicates of arity at most 2 can express all monotone rewritings. We leave this interesting question for future work.

A possible continuation of this work would be to study monotone determinacy with more powerful views and queries. This seems to require new ideas already for CRPQs.

Finally we conclude by mentioning the open problem consisting in deciding whether an RPQ view determines an RPQ query, without the monotonicity assumption.

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